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AUTHOR	O'Reilly, Robert C.; Squires, Sandra K.
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ABSTRACT

The role of the school principal appears to have changed as the result of Public Law 94-142 (Education for All Handicapped Children Act) and now includes increased community involvement, paperwork, time related to non-instructional tasks for children, and greater involvement of teachers in the organization and structure of the school. In response to these perceived changes, a series of in-service seminars was held for Omaha-area administrators. Highlights of the seminars are reported in this pamphlet and focus on six topics: teacher assistance teams, the impact of handicapping conditions in the family, curricular needs and adaptations for special education students, due process, evaluation of special education personnel, and special education funding. A literature review analyzing building principals' attitudes, knowledge, and skills in relation to the implementation of Public Law 94-142 is also included. (JDD)

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Special Education In-Service for Metro Area School Administrators

Dr. Robert C. O'Reilly
Dr. Sandra K. Squires

Assisted by

Ms. Norma Berg
Ms. Mary Saylor

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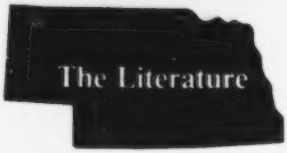
Although interest in educational programs for handicapped children is not new, a new level of emphasis came as public school districts became charged, legally, with certain specific obligations. Court cases and various statutes reached a climax with the passage of PL 94-142, the Education for all Handicapped Children Act, in 1975. The U.S. Congress took a strong stand. Some called it ethical or philosophical; some called it political. In reality, it was probably a reflection of all three as the Congress viewed the needs of handicapped children. That statute placed upon each local education agency (LEA) the responsibility to shoulder state-approved plans for upgrading the education of handicapped children. Federal appropriation modestly supported the statute and the concept, and that has been a continuing characteristic.

Since that federal statute and companion state statutes were passed, LEAs have moved to incorporate this new level of responsibility, and have established systems for the identification of handicapped children, programs for their placement, routines that guarantee due process, and so on. With more than 10 percent of the student population generally conceded to have a verified handicapping condition, the task — really, consisting of many sub-tasks — can be seen as a huge new educational undertaking. It has used, and will continue to use, resources of time, personnel, and money. How to best function in the newly mandated milieu has been a concern of building principals because they are responsible for the management of resources in their respective buildings.

There is no doubt that American society has committed the LEAs of the nation to engage in a whole new dimension of the education of handicapped children over the past ten years. This obligation calls for new skills and new appreciations, some of which are in the bailiwick of the discipline of educational administration and some of which are in philosophy and various specialty areas of special education.



The role of building principal is commonly considered to be key to successful implementation of educational innovation. Several studies have focused on the principal's attitude, knowledge and skills in relationship to the implementation of Public Law 94-142 (Brozovich & Kotting, 1982: Cline, 1981; Dowling, 1980; Dozier, 1979; Joseph, 1983; Kopriva, 1981; Marino, 1984; Prillman, 1984; Reehill, 1982; Ware-Ashby, 1980.)

In two studies of principals, researchers used the Rucker Gable Educational Programming Scale (1973) to compare principals' attitudes and knowledge about educational programming for special education students to those of a panel of experts in special education. Cline (1981) studied 91 principals and found no significant differences between principals falling into these three groups: those who had one semester of experience with handicapped students in their schools and those with no experience, female and male principals, and elementary and secondary principals. He did find that principals with 10 or fewer years experience were more knowledgeable than their more senior collegues. Also principals were more positive about their expectations of severely handicapped and mentally retarded students, and less positive about mildly handicapped students than were the experts. Principals were less knowledgeable than the experts in all areas assessed.

Reehill (1982) studied 110 principals also using the Rucker Gable Educational Programming Scale. He found no significant difference in knowledge and attitude based on variables of exposure to handicapped students of elementary and middle school principals, no significant difference between elementary principals', middle school principals', and experts' attitudes toward any group of students except toward the mildly handicapped. In that area, as in the Cline study, principals had less positive attitudes toward mildly handicapped students reflected by their tendency to restrict these students' educational placement more. Reehill found the principals were less knowledgeable than the experts regarding appropriate placements of students.

Prillman (1984) examined the attitudes of 50 principals on a Mainstreaming Planning Inventory (May & Furst, 1977) who had not received inservice training under a federally funded project and reported percentages of principals holding certain beliefs. Ninety percent of those assessed believed that mainstreaming would *not* result in increased behavior problems and mainstreaming would increase the chances of handicapped students to increase their independence and quality of life; eighty percent did not believe regular classroom placement would result in student social withdrawal; seventy-five percent believed that having handicapped students in the classroom would enhance teachers' professional growth, that teachers would need new techniques and materials to teach mainstreamed children, and that normal children would profit from expo-

sure to handicapped students; and sixty percent would want their child, if handicapped, to be placed primarily in the regular classroom.

Two studies compared a self rating of beliefs regarding mainstreaming to perceptions of their individual performance. Kopriva (1981) surveyed 205 principals with a 66 percent return rate in a study of Colorado principals. He found close agreement between the principals' self-rating of importance of mainstreaming competencies and their individual performances. He found little difference between the ratings according to age, but he did find some difference between male and female principals. Female principals attached more importance to selected competencies and rated themselves as more competent in those areas.

Marino (1984) studied 39 secondary principals' self perceptions with a 69 percent return rate on an adapted version of the Principal's Behavioral Competencies Self Rating Scale (Betz, 1977). Marino found that principals rated themselves good to superior in most competency areas. Their highest self rating was the area of assigning and reassigning instructional staff and their lowest was in the area of leading inservice training sessions. She found significant differences between those principals holding master's degrees and those holding doctorates and perceptions of their competency in relating student needs to school goals, legal requirements, and defining goals and objectives specific to their school unit. She found no significant differences in principals relative to age, years of experience, atttendance at workshops, or level of administrative assignment.

Dozier (1979) conducted a survey of 200 building principals in southern Louisiana with a 90 percent return rate. She examined the results of two self report instruments, The Attitude Toward Disabled Persons Scale (Yuker, et. al., 1970) and the Perceived Problems Opinion Scale (Arbuckle, 1976) to determine whether there was a relationship between principals' attitudes toward exceptional persons and their perception of problems they might have implementing Public Law 94-142. She found a positive correlation ($r = .872$) between the two scales and two subcategories of the latter scale. The author concluded that if the principal's attitude was positive she/he would perceive fewer problems implementing P.L. 94-142.

One study examined time spent and two examined change in behavior as a result of implementing Public Law 94-142. Brozovich and Kotting (1982) surveyed 158 principals with a 54 percent return rate. They studied the self report data of secondary principals, assistant principals, and directors of special education regarding their responsibility for high school special education programs, time spent on special education activities, and inservice topics. They found that principals reported an average of 22.9 hours per year attending Individualized Educational Program (IEP) meetings and 18.2 hours per year administering high school special education programs which is less time than spent by either the director of special education or the assistant principals on the same activities. The principals spent an average of 222 minutes a week total time related to special education activities, again less than the assistant principals' average of 370 minutes and directors' of special education average of 298 minutes. Principals perceived their major responsibilities in the areas of tenure evaluation of itinerant and classroom special education staff, making teacher

assignments, and a distant fourth of special education graduation requirements.

In a well conceived and executed study of 39 elementary principals, Ware-Ashby (1980) interviewed urban principals in an attempt to identify the changes which had occurred as a result of implementation of Public Law 94-142 and the effect of those changes. She found the major changes had been: increased community involvement and emphasis on community relations; more paper work and emphasis on finance business management issues; more time spent on the non-instructional needs of children; greater teacher involvement in the organization and structure of the school and more time working with teachers; and more time implementing new programs, reading packages, and delivery systems. One half of the principals in area of changes in the school plant reported no changes had been made.

The effects of these reported changes were making adjustments to spend more time in staffing and evaluation procedures; working more actively in the community; watching the budget more carefully and prioritizing due to inflation; counseling with children, using affective education and providing inservice with children; and using more time assisting teachers and doing supervision.

Several studies examined how principals acquired their knowledge about special education, what they felt was the most effective means to gain information and which topics were of greatest interest to them. Kopriva (1981) found agreement among the principals in his study on three sources of inservice training. They were local faculty meetings planned by teachers and administrators, inservice by outside consultants, and workshops during a block of time. Marino (1984) found principals who had had formal coursework in special education were more comfortable in leading inservice training sessions for teachers and understanding due process procedures, but that the principals' perception of competence to administer special education programs did not reflect formal coursework or knowledge in the area. Joseph (1983) in a study of 13 principals and 283 teachers found that principals received their knowledge about handicapped students through experience and attending workshops primarily but gained very little information from formal coursework and self-directed reading.

In a study of 248 principals with a 48 percent return rate, Dowling (1980) studied the relationship between areas and methods of prior training and self-reported competencies in mainstreaming. Principals rated their skills higher if they had participated in self-initiated reading and workshops than if they had taken formal coursework. Principals with training in recent state legislation, nondiscriminatory testing and evaluation, administering programs for the handicapped, utilizing effective placement procedures, and evaluating programs for the handicapped tended to give higher ratings to mainstreaming competencies. Prior training did not affect competency ratings in these areas: rationale and philosophy for least restrictive environment, parental involvement, and use of public services. The most frequently cited topics of training were due process, effective procedures for mainstreaming, and recent federal legislation. The areas cited for least frequent training were overcoming organization resistance to changing programs for handicapped children, involving community groups in the planning process, and utilizing successful strategies for effecting change in

programs for the handicapped.

In their study, Brozovich and Kotting (1982) had the principals rank inservice topics according to their needs. The topics from greatest to least need were: rights of school personnel, parents and students relative to special education, mainstreaming procedures, special education rules and regulations, behavior management techniques, and suspension and exclusion procedures.

Dozier (1979) concluded from the comments submitted by 40 percent of the principals in her study they had inservice needs in the areas of general knowledge in special education, exposure to handicapped persons, the principal's role in developing the Individualized Educational Programs, sensitivity training to understand their own attitudes, and information on placing students in the least restrictive environment.

In summary, it seems possible to conclude that age, exposure to handicapped students in their building, and level of administrative assignments do not seem to affect principals' attitudes or knowledge regarding mainstreaming issues. Principals are less knowledgeable than experts and tend to be more restrictive in their perceptions of mildly handicapped students. As a group they tend to rate the importance and their skill in mainstreaming competencies generally high. Most of the principals seem to have acquired their knowledge through job related workshops or self-initiated reading, but not necessarily through formal coursework. If they have had training it has probably been in due process, effective procedures for mainstreaming, and legislation.

The role of the building principal appears to have changed as the result of Public Law 94-142 to have increased community involvement, paperwork, time related to non-instructional tasks for children, and greater involvement of teachers in the organization and structure of the school.

Principals' roles have changed relative to special education and this project was an attempt to address some areas of that change.

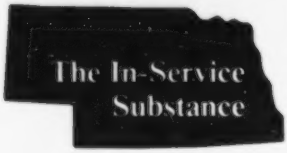
Professors in the departments of special education and educational administration at the University of Nebraska at Omaha (UNO) had observed some special needs among principals in this metro area. They needed to know more about some technical characteristics of handicapped children, the legal obligations of schools, program appraisal, program costs and so on. After discussion and agreement on such a need, two professors submitted a proposal for a principal in-service program to the Nebraska Department of Education, seeking modest support through the Comprehensive State Personnel Development Program at the Nebraska Department of Education (NDE). The University contributed fractional parts of two professors' time, modest clerical support, and an undefined amount of work from two graduate assistants.

Entitled "In-service for Building Level Administrators in the Omaha Metropolitan Area," the proposal asked for about $4,500 from the NDE, a little less than half the total budget amount. The plan was to identify fifty participants, schedule the seminars early in the morning, and develop six topical seminars to be held during the academic year. UNO has established and maintains a close working relationship with the schools of the Omaha area. That was a critical factor, for it allowed a presupposition of cooperation, which occurred with several letters of endorsement to the proposal.

In the grant proposal, meetings were scheduled and a topic assigned to each of the six sessions. Seminar leaders were not specified. The proposal timeline also outlined how the seminar clients would be identified. To make the early morning meeting time a little more attractive, the proposal called for breakfast to be served. This was the major cost of the proposal, more than honoraria for seminar leaders, publications, or other project expenses.

Upon receiving the grant award from the NDE, the project staff solicited nominations from area superintendents. That solicitation invited them to name principals to the seminar group. Allocations were made, roughly proportional to district size, and a list of forty-one principals was developed from ten area school districts. Three special education supervisors were added, coming from an intermediate service unit, and a final group consisted of forty-four participants. The first seminar was held in mid October, and there were forty-one administrators at the first session.

Attendance was one indicator for appraisal. Considering that there were people with heavy demands upon their time, the project staff was pleased that average session attendance was thirty-eight persons. The proposal called for two "formal" appraisals, and participants rated their interest in each seminar, after three sessions and the remaining session at the end of the series. On a five point scale, with five being excellent, the mean rating for the six seminars was 4.53. Less formal indicators of felt value were informal discussion, and a consistent pattern of the numbers of persons staying past adjournment to talk among themselves and with the presentor-leaders.



The proposal outlined the topics for the seminars, so a commitment was made at that point. Those topical areas were a part of the proposal endorsement, as central office administrators from several area schools wrote letters of support. From note taking, audio recording, and materials supplied by the presentors, a precis of the six meetings was developed, and each is presented in summary, including highlights identified by each seminar leader.

Teacher Assistance Teams

Sharon Reed and Suzen DeCastro, teachers from Walt Disney Elementary School, Millard School District, spoke on Teacher Assistance Teams (TAT). This process is a within-classroom model whereby a teacher team serves as a within-building resource. The TAT is a cost effective and accountable system for suggesting assistance to classroom teachers with gifted, verified handicapped, or for any child who is experiencing difficulty in school.

The speakers noted that in a typical student body, an estimated 75 percent of all children are learning well but that 25 percent are experiencing learning problems. It is this 25 percent with which the TAT deals. The TAT has been tested in urban, suburban, and rural areas and is working effectively for these children.

A typical TAT within a building consists of three elected teachers and one referring teacher. This alleviates the expense of special consultants or any other specialty personnel. The TAT meets on a regular basis; membership rotates to give each teacher an opportunity to serve and to prevent the team from growing stale. It is of prime importance to the TAT to have building principal support and also to provide release time to those teachers serving on the team. Reed and DeCastro estimated that 60 percent of all referrals could be handled in a TAT meeting, reducing the need to special education staffings. The TAT meeting also serves as a setting in which teachers feel free from intimidation and can speak with professional candor.

The TAT meetings are task oriented and follow a six step procedure:

1. Reach a consensus on the problem — develop a diagram of the student, including background information.
2. Negotiate objectives — allow 15 minutes; no more, no less.
3. Brainstorm alternative suggestions — this allows for objective input from team members. Allow 15 minutes.
4. Select suggestions for trial — done by referring teacher.
5. Refine suggestions.
6. Plan follow-up — i.e., determination of success of implemented ideas.

There are minor differences between a SAT (Student Assistance Team)

and a TAT. Typically, a SAT might have more specialists involved, and an administrator is usually the leader. Whether TAT or SAT, each involves cooperative problem solving and a multidisciplinary approach which is action oriented.

Session Highlights:

1. ***TATs provide consultation with a team of peers with problem-solving techniques.***
2. ***TATs have specific guidelines for their problem-solving meeting.***
3. ***TATs require support from building principals.***
4. ***TATs provide evaluations and follow-up recommendations.***
5. ***TATs have positive effects on teaching and defer unnecessary referrals for special education services.***

Impact of Handicapping Conditions in the Family

Dr. John Hill is a Professor of Counseling and Special Education at UNO, and coordinator of the Learning Disabilities Clinic at Meyer Children's Rehabilitation Institute at the University of Nebraska Medical Center. His topic was on handicapped students and their families. A number of his remarks focused on identification of the behaviorally impaired (BI), learning disabled (LD), and educable mentally handicapped (EMH) students. He stated that our public school systems are not well structured to address individual problems among BI, LD, and EMH students. For instance, typically in special education resource rooms, BI and LD students are grouped together. This can cause significant problems for the teacher, in that LD students, although in need to special attention, typically are not behavior problems. Quite the opposite may be true of the BI students. In these combined settings, a special education teacher may devote too much time to maintaining an orderly atmosphere, while leaving substantially less time to manage learning situations.

As stated previously, not all BI students are behavior problems for a classroom teacher. Some BI students are extremely withdrawn, emotionally depleted, and lack spontaneity. These students do not exhibit acting out behaviors in a classroom. They do, however, require special attention which is often not given because of the nature of their problem. That is, because they are so quiet and nonparticipative, these students can easily be overlooked — and too often, they are.

At the opposite end of the continuum are the BI students who have difficulty controlling their behavior and are noisy and aggressive. These are the students, who, because of their special problems, place teachers in positions where they have no choice but to deal with the immediacy of the student behaviors. The BI students present the most trouble within the school setting. Students with behavioral disorders exhibit problems in three ways: personality problems, psychosis, and conduct disorder. The withdrawn BI student has personality problems. He may be shy, anxious, withdrawn, feel suicidal or be depressed — which may be anger turned toward himself. A small percentage of

the BI students are psychotic and can easily make adults feel incompetent. They exhibit self-injurious behavior, such as biting their hands, hitting their heads, and so on, but these students are not typically found in public school classrooms.

The third type of BI students can be classified as having conduct disorders. These students might be characterized by one or more of these conditions. They externalize their emotions, are pre-delinquent, rebel against authority, fight, bring out the worst in adults, are truant, are sexually promiscuous, run away, and typically do not stay in school. These students need structured control as the first step in their education.

Contrasting the behaviorally impaired student to the learning disabled student, we find the primary problems among LD students are difficulties in reading, writing, and spelling. Dr. Hill believes that public schools do a fairly good job with these students. Some of the secondary problems with LD students include inappropriate motor activities and hyper- or hypo-activity. Unfortunately, a major delay often exists in diagnosing and addressing disabilities which could, in many cases, be accomplished at earlier ages. The earlier a family realizes their children have learning disabilities, the earlier help can be offered to the family and the child.

He spoke about some of the relationships within the families of handicapped children. It has been Dr. Hill's observation that a new phenomenon has occurred with grading systems in that "average" is considered failing by many parents; i.e., a grade of "C" is considered by many parents to be a bad grade. He compared effects of this phenomenon among normal, behaviorally impaired (BI), learning disabled (LD), and educably mentally handicapped (EMH). In his research, he has found that the learning and behavior patterns of EMH children are much more similar to those students identified as learning disabled.

Session Highlights:

1. ***The public school systems are not well structured to address individual problems.***
2. ***The special education teacher must deal with more than one type of special education student in one classroom setting each with different educational needs — a complicating factor in instruction.***
3. ***A major problem exists in that diagnosing and addressing disabilities should be accomplished at an earlier age than is now typically the case.***

Curricular Needs and Adaptations for the Special Education Students

Dr. Arleen Michael, then Assistant Professor of Counseling and Special Education, pointed out that many times individuals think nice thoughts about others but usually do not verbalize those thoughts. This, unfortunately, is true of many special education classroom teachers. Typically students in special education classrooms have had their faults pointed out to them, perhaps over emphasized.

The main aspect of prevention of behavior problems is an organized classroom. In order to organize the classroom which will facilitate special education classes, restructuring usually has to occur. Special education teachers should ask themselves what, where, how, how much, and how well a child does something. The "what" aspect of these questions can rarely be changed. In prevention of problems, the possibility of double standards for the teacher and child must be examined as an open professional question, for it is too frequent an occurrence. It is a good lesson for special education teachers to model the behavior they expect from their students. In other words, "do as I say, not as I do," does not work well with special education students. They need congruence between verbal and behavioral messages.

If the classroom is arranged in such a manner as to allow the teacher eye contact with any student at any given time, the teacher then has enhanced her abilities to use non-verbal signals to communicate with students. Personal proximity is an essential component in creating an atmosphere which allows the students a sense of personal space. In relationship to a student's sense of space, communication between student and teacher will be enhanced if the teacher will physically get down to the eye level of the student. Dr. Michael stated that in regard to personal space she goes so far as to require her graduate students with long hair to tie it back so their faces are clearly visible to their students.

Intervention takes place after "rotten" behavior happens. In establishing therapeutic goals as a means of intervention, alternatives should be offered which allow the student to maintain his dignity. Dr. Michael provided an example of a child whose mother had been hospitalized, a fact of which the teacher was unaware. When the student turned in a math paper which was sloppy and torn, the teacher demanded that he redo the assignment. Because of the student's overwhelming anger and inability to cope emotionally with his mother's situation, he ripped the paper, threw it in the trash can, and refused to do as directed. He was then referred to the principal's office. Later the details affecting his behavior became apparent. In this example, the child was given no alternative in which he could maintain his dignity or even express his feelings, and disruptive behavior was how he chose to cope.

Finally, in remediation, the major element is matching the students' abilities with problems that give promise of solutions. When students do not seem to be behaving in accordance with their responses, e.g. the teacher repeatedly asks the students if he understands directions to the assignment and the student repeatedly nods yes, but does not begin working, the teacher must take further steps to determine that the student completely understands the directions and has the skills to complete the task. In other words, the special education teacher must remember not to make assumptions. It is beneficial for the special education teacher to establish a system in which every pupil knows how to ask for help. Probably the most effective but most difficult condition to accept is that treatment of students does not have to be equal for each member of the class, but rather for the individuals in the class.

Session Highlights:

1. Many behavior problems can be prevented.

2. ***Unacceptable classroom behavior occurs at times when environmental expectations and student skills do not match.***
3. ***Teachers make assumptions about student skills.***
4. ***By modifying expectations, we can avoid many behavior problems.***
5. ***Appropriate behaviors can and should be taught, not just expected.***

Due Process

Dr. Robert C. O'Reilly, Professor and Chair of the Department of Educational Administration and Supervision, University of Nebraska at Omaha, spoke on due process and how it applies to the handicapped student. He began his presentation by stating that handicapped students are seen by the law as having both substantive and procedural entitlement in regard to their publicly supported education. However, a local 1978 survey indicated that teachers were not prepared for mainstreaming, indicating some inability to respond properly to the Education of All Handicapped Children Act.

Essentially, the courts have answered the question: "What am I entitled to in a public school?" Dr. O'Reilly distributed a summary sheet listing six topics which related to defining substantive and procedural entitlement. These topics were placement, reevaluation, discrimination, transportation, misdiagnosis, and length of school year. For each of these topics, cases were cited which corresponded to questions in those areas. These cases made clear the fact that responsibility for student placement lies with the principal of the school building and that principals are liable for wrongful acts against children.

For example, a question of discrimination was raised in the case of *Carter v. Orleans Parish Schools (1984)*. It was determined that when students are mislabeled and misassigned into classes for handicapped children, this is not a sign of discrimination on the part of the school board, but may indicate irresponsibility on the part of the principal. Through discussion of these topics, Dr. O'Reilly repeatedly placed emphasis on the fact that the building principal is the one on whom responsibility for the appropriate education of children rests. This responsibility certainly includes all action that leads to an IEP, and its subsequent review.

Of the eight categories of protected citizens in the United States, one category is handicapped persons. Their protection is through extended, professionally refined application of due process. Thus, it must be remembered that under federal *and* Nebraska statute, public schools are obligated to provide an appropriate education for all handicapped children through age 21.

Session Highlights:

1. ***Principals are the professionally responsible persons for pupil placement in each building.***
2. ***Parents have rights, established in statutes and cases, to join in the staffing decisions that lead to placement; and rights of appeal of placement.***

3. ***School districts may have to provide extensive and unusual provisions in order that children with particular handicaps can remain in a school setting, and be in a least restrictive environment.***
4. ***No child should be identified as handicapped or placed without appropriate testing and parental consent.***
5. ***School districts are not obligated to provide the best possible educational opportunities for handicapped pupils, but must provide appropriate IEPs, whether in home study, specialized institutions, or the acting LEA.***

Evaluation of Special Education Personnel

Dr. Thomas Petrie, Professor of Educational Administration and Supervision at UNO, delineated three aspects in evaluating personnel: structure of supervision, structure of treating teachers as adult decision makers, and applications/implications of his model for special education.

When a principal interacts with a teacher, they are in a super-subordinate relationship. Usually individuals try to minimize these differences. However, Dr. Petrie believes these super-subordinate relationships must be acknowledged, dealt with and incorporated into professional behavior.

Two reference points were emphasized. One dealt with the structure of supervision-evaluation, and the other dealt with clinical supervision. The first reference addressed four areas of supervision and evaluation: teaching skills, lessons, models, and local evaluation designs. *Skills* are the units of teaching competence and must be taught by themselves and then applied to various areas. *Lessons* provide the overall design for accomplishing an objective and should be used when planning the lesson. Two aspects of teaching *models* were covered, explicit and implicit, with explicit being the perspective of the teacher and implicit the perception of the principal.

Dr. Petrie recommended that each LEA evaluation design be related to skills, and commented that most evaluation forms are much too general. For evaluation purposes the terms used need to be more specifically defined, more precisely refined and mutually understood by teacher and principal.

Clinical supervision involves pre-conference, observation, analysis, and post-conference. He emphasized that clinical supervision provides a structure for best dealing with teaching skills, lessons and evaluation. He recommends the principal transcribe everything possible during the observation. It is a skill that every principal should cultivate and use in evaluation of personnel. Some of the benefits of transcription are its immediacy, the possibility of discovering patterns, and the merit of giving the principal's undivided attention to the supervising task.

Dr. Petrie then moved his attention to the four assumptions about special education: classes are smaller, contents are in smaller segments, students have generally experienced less success, and students have a lower self concept than

is true for classes in general. Because of these assumptions, the special education teacher must plan lessons for each child, make many brief presentations, spend more time on task, provide effective modeling and guided practice. The special education teacher should be particularly aware of the difference between a complete lesson and the coverage of the materials. While the lesson provides a structure, the teacher must be alert to the function and sequence of objectives, presentations, formative evaluations, reteaching, and summative evaluations. While the mastery learning program generally includes one reteach cycle, the special education teacher may wish to include several reteach cycles in the lesson plan.

Session Highlights:

1. ***Skills are the primary unit of teaching.***
2. ***Lessons are the organization means for using skills to accomplish objectives. Lesson organizations have been created by such patterns as Madeline Hunter, Instructional Theory and Instructional Practice, and Mastery Learning.***
3. ***Clinical supervision is the process model for structuring supervision and evaluation.***
4. ***Special education tends to sequence objectives and content in smaller lesson modules. However, the instructional and supervision process is similar.***
5. ***Supervision is too important to leave to memory. Documenting all supervision and using the outcomes for the improvement of instruction and evaluation has merit.***

Special Education Funding

Dr. Joseph Gaughan, Assistant Superintendent of Special Education in the Omaha Public Schools and a student of finance in special education programs, spoke about special education funding. He highlighted two major topics: 1) how special education is funded in general and 2) how special education is funded in Nebraska.

Dr. Gaughan discussed four methods of special education funding in the country. These were:

1. Teacher Unit Funding — the state determines the funding by the number of teachers in special education programs;
2. Pupil Unit Funding — average daily pupil attendance is the basis for this determination. Funding for pupils may vary by the type of handicapping conditions;
3. Weighted Pupil Unit — designed to be part of the total state aid formula, with different weights applied to different kinds of handicapping conditions; and
4. Differentiated Index Funding — this is similar to the weighted pupil unit. The cost is different for different handicapping conditions.

Because none of the discrete methods of funding can go beyond explicit

monetary limitations, there is a tendency for the financial dictates to loom as more important than the actual special education needs.

After analysis of these methods, it was suggested that there are six aspects which should be included in systems of funding. These are: 1) equality among districts; 2) allowance for program flexibility; 3) accountability; 4) cost effectiveness; 5) compatibility with other funding mechanisms; 6) manageability.

Dr. Gaughan spoke about Nebraska's system of funding. He shared copies of the standard reporting forms used by each LEA when information is reported to the Nebraska Department of Education. He defined significant terms such as allowable excess cost, adjusted average per pupil cost, and formulas for computing adjusted average per pupil cost and gave actual examples. He explained that Local Education Agencies (LEA) do not receive as much financial support from state sources as is normally perceived.

There are three financial levels for special education programs. Level I encompasses resource services which amount to three hours per week or 30 minutes per day per child. Level I is reimbursable at no more than 90 percent of allowable costs, and payable in the year following the offered program. Level II is more traditional special education programming, i.e., it involves classroom resource services. This amounts to two or three periods per day up to a full day and is funded in the same way as Level I. Level III services provide for contracts with an outside agency, and therefore do not take place within that public school setting. This may be due to the uniqueness or severity of the handicap or the lack of available programs in a particular district.

Dr. Gaughan concluded his presentation by stating that between 65-70 percent of special education costs fall under a state funding formula. Each LEA, then, actually contributes 30-35 percent of the additional or excess costs that are part of educating the students who are handicapped.

Session Highlights:

1. ***There are various funding methods for special education, e.g., Teacher Unit Funding, Pupil Unit Funding, Weighted Pupil Unit, and Differentiated Index Funding.***
2. ***There is some research on what a system should contain. It should be equitable, flexible, accountable, cost effective compatible, and manageable.***
3. ***The Nebraska system includes a variety of components and is very complex.***
4. ***The excess cost provision allows for reimbursement on only those costs in excess of normal pupil costs.***

Although there has always been concern from the general citizenry about handicapped children, for many generations that concern was most evident in the providing of institutions for residential care. That is, handicapped children were moved out of the social mainstream, and were, largely, hidden. This was the primary characteristic of much state legislation enacted in the early nineteenth century. More recently, parent groups have argued that such children should be given educational opportunities, and legislatures have stipulated directions away from custodial care and toward developmental care. Civil lawsuits, claiming educational rights, were heard in the latter 1960s and early 1970s and federal judges found those arguments persuasive. States were ordered to provide more than food, shelter, and clothing for children with handicaps. Education became a substantive entitlement, and LEAs were identified as the agents for delivering new and unique services. This growth in the service obligation came at a time of decreasing student registration, and acted as a stabilizing influence in schools. That is, as numbers of children decreased, the numbers of special programs increased. With budgetary consequences, this has been a political problem for LEA's, as citizens have asked when numbers of students decrease, why shouldn't budgets go down?

The mainstreaming concept, with obvious relationships to the earlier civil rights concern of racial desegregation, gained popularity. Organizations such as the Council for Exceptional Children, developed new concepts of education and supported lobbying power for concerned parents and professionals. Such activities and outlooks provided the basis for passage by the Congress of P.L. 94-142 in 1975, the Education of All Handicapped Children Act.

That legislation was a signal. Every state legislature followed. Departments of Education set forward new rules and regulations. Identification of every handicapped child in each LEA became a job that was actively pursued as all of the nation's LEAs sought to meet their new mandates. Levels of success have varied among the school districts, but the involvement of building administrators is central to success.

Building principals are responsible for the placement of each child in that building, and that includes every handicapped child. Not all children with handicaps will be placed in every school building. New skills in committee work and in presenting individualized programs became part of the principal's obligation. Principals have new obligations to manage their time to know about special education programs and pupils which may call for shifting their job priorities. The obligation is clear: find the child, design the program, place the child for appropriate instruction while using variable schedules and available resources. That is one obligation for each building principal in public education.

Details of that obligation start with meeting the letter of the law and

include developing a knowledge — even a modest one — about handicapped children. The obligation also includes supervision of programs and the instructional personnel in those programs. Finally, the obligation includes program review and assessment and reporting to parents. The programs that started with legislative mandates and which have passed through the central offices of each school district have a destination in individual school buildings, and the administrator responsible for quality — in all of its aspects — is the principal.

Plans of the Education Department, announced early in 1985, will call for three year reviews of programs for the education of handicapped children. The guidelines will be developed in 1985 and will emphasize the responsibility of each state to check the compliance of every LEA with current regulations of P.L. 94-142 regulations. These new guidelines shift more and more responsibility for special education away from the federal and toward the state and local levels.

In their present form, the proposed guidelines include five components: 1) annual performance reports and data review; 2) reviews and approval of state plans; 3) review of state education department performance; 4) verification via follow-up, and; 5) specific compliance review. All of this will call for new information, for new data from the operational levels, a new obligation for reporting by on-site administrators. The same holds true, of course, for central office administration. Past history of special education programs and impending new Department of Education guidelines that feature more precise and more rigorous reporting point out the need for continuing in-service programs for LEA administrators.

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Project Staff

Dr. Robert C. O'Reilly is Professor and Chairperson of the Department of Educational Administration and Supervision. He served as co-director of this project.

Dr. Sandra K. Squires is Associate Professor and Chairperson of the Department of Counseling and Special Education. She served as co-director of this project.

Ms. Norma Berg was a graduate assistant in the Department of Counseling and Special Education and served on the staff of this project.

Ms. Mary Saylor was a graduate assistant in the Department of Educational Administration and Supervision and served on the staff of this project.

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